

1 **Neural dynamics between anterior insular cortex and right supramarginal gyrus dissociate genuine**
2 **affect sharing from automatic responses to pretended pain**

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8 **Abstract**

9 Empathy for pain engages both shared affective responses and self-other distinction. In this study,
10 we addressed the highly debated question of whether neural responses previously linked to affect
11 sharing could result from the perception of salient affective displays. Moreover, we investigated how
12 affect sharing and self-other distinction interact to determine our response to a pain that is either
13 genuine, or merely pretended. We found stronger activations in regions associated with affect
14 sharing (anterior insula, alns, and anterior mid-cingulate cortex, aMCC) as well as with affective self-
15 other distinction (right supramarginal gyrus, rSMG), in participants watching video clips of genuine
16 vs. pretended facial expressions of pain. Using dynamic causal modeling (DCM), we then assessed
17 the neural dynamics between the right alns and rSMG in these two conditions. This revealed a
18 reduced inhibitory effect on the alns to rSMG connection for genuine compared to pretended pain.
19 For genuine pain only, brain-to-behavior regression analyses highlighted a linkage between this
20 inhibitory effect on the one hand, and pain ratings as well as empathic traits on the other. These
21 findings imply that if the pain of others is genuine and thus calls for an appropriate empathic
22 response, neural responses in the alns indeed seem related to affect sharing and self-other
23 distinction is engaged to avoid empathic over-arousal. In contrast, if others merely pretend to be in
24 pain, the perceptual salience of their painful expression results in neural responses that are down-
25 regulated to avoid inappropriate affect sharing and social support.

26

27

28 Introduction

29 As social beings, our own affective states are influenced by other people's feelings and affective
30 states. The facial expression of pain by others acts as a distinctive cue to signal their pain to others,
31 and thus results in sizeable affective responses in the observer. Certifying such responses as
32 evidence for empathy, however, requires successful self-other distinction, the ability to distinguish
33 the affective response experienced by ourselves from the affect experienced by the other person.

34 Studies using a wide variety of methods convergently have shown that observing others in pain
35 engages neural responses aligning with those coding for the affective component of self-experienced
36 pain, with the anterior insula (aIns) and the anterior mid-cingulate cortex (aMCC) being two key
37 areas in which such an alignment has been detected (Lamm et al., 2011; Rütgen et al., 2015;
38 Jauniaux et al., 2019; Xiong et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2020; Fallon et al., 2020, for meta-analyses).
39 However, there is consistent debate on whether activity observed in these areas should indeed be
40 related to the sharing of pain affect, or whether it may not rather result from automatic responses
41 to salient perceptual cues - with pain vividly expressed on the face being one particularly prominent
42 example (Zaki et al., 2016, for review). It was thus one major aim of our study to address this
43 question. In this respect, contextual factors, individuals' appraisals, and attentional processes would
44 all impact their exact response to the affective states of others (Gu & Han, 2007; Hein & Singer,
45 2008, for review; Lamm et al., 2010; Forbes & Hamilton, 2020; Zhao et al., 2021). Recently, Coll et al.
46 (2017) have thus proposed a framework that attempts to capture these influences on affect sharing
47 and empathic responses. This model posits that individuals who see identical negative facial
48 expressions of others may have different empathic responses due to distinct contextual information,
49 and that this may depend on identification of the underlying affective state displayed by the other.

50 In the current functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) study, we therefore created a situation
51 where we varied the genuineness of the pain affect felt by participants while keeping the perceptual
52 saliency (i.e., the quality and strength of pain expressions) identical. To this end, participants were
53 shown video clips of other persons who supposedly displayed genuine pain on their face vs. merely
54 pretended to be in pain. This way, we sought to identify the extent to which responses in affective
55 nodes (such as the aIns and the aMCC) genuinely track the pain of others, rather than resulting
56 predominantly from the salient facial expressions associated with the pain.

57 Another major aim of our study was to assess how self-other distinction allowed individuals to
58 distinguish between the sharing of actual pain vs. regulating an inappropriate and potentially
59 misleading "sharing" of what in reality is only a pretended affective state. We focused on the right
60 supramarginal gyrus (rSMG), which has been suggested to act as a major hub selectively engaged in

61 *affective* self-other distinction (Silani et al., 2013; Steinbeis et al., 2015; Hoffmann et al., 2016;
62 Bukowski et al., 2020). Though previous studies have indicated that rSMG is functionally connected
63 with areas associated with affect processing (Mars et al., 2011; Bukowski et al., 2020), we lack more
64 nuanced insights into how exactly rSMG interacts with these areas, and thus how it supports
65 accurate empathic responses. Hence, we used dynamic causal modeling (DCM) to investigate the
66 hypothesized distinct interactions between affective responses and self-other distinction for the
67 genuine and pretended pain situations, focusing on the alns, aMCC, and their interaction with rSMG.
68 Furthermore, we investigated the relationship between neural activity and behavioral responses as
69 well as empathic traits. In line with the literature reviewed above, we expected that, on the
70 behavioral level, genuine pain would result in – alongside the obvious other-oriented higher pain
71 ratings – higher self-oriented unpleasantness ratings. On the neural level, we predicted alns and
72 aMCC to show a stronger response to the genuine expressions of pain, but that these areas would
73 also respond to the pretended pain, but to a lower extent. Differences in rSMG engagement and
74 distinct patterns of this area’s effective connectivity with alns and aMCC were expected to relate to
75 self-other distinction, and thus to explain the different empathic responses to genuine vs. pretended
76 pain.

77 **Results**

78 **Behavioral results**

79 Three repeated-measures ANOVAs were performed with the factors *genuineness* (genuine vs.
80 pretended and *pain* (pain vs. no pain), for each of the three behavioral ratings. For ratings of painful
81 *expressions* in others (Figure 1C, left), there was a main effect of the factor genuineness: participants
82 showed higher ratings for the genuine vs. pretended conditions, $F_{\text{genuineness}}(1, 42) = 8.816, p = 0.005,$
83 $\eta^2 = 0.173$. There was also a main effect of pain: participants showed higher ratings for the pain vs.
84 no pain conditions, $F_{\text{pain}}(1, 42) = 1718.645, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.976$. The interaction term was significant
85 as well, $F_{\text{interaction}}(1, 42) = 7.443, p = 0.009, \eta^2 = 0.151$, and this was related to higher ratings of
86 painful expressions in others for the genuine pain compared to the pretended pain condition. For
87 ratings of painful feelings in others (Figure 1C, middle), there was a main effect of genuineness:
88 participants showed higher ratings for the genuine vs. pretended conditions, $F_{\text{genuineness}}(1, 42) =$
89 $770.140, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.948$. There was also a main effect of pain, as participants showed higher
90 ratings for the pain vs. no pain conditions, $F_{\text{pain}}(1, 42) = 1544.762, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.974$. The
91 interaction for painful feelings ratings was significant as well, $F_{\text{interaction}}(1, 42) = 752.618, p < 0.001, \eta^2$
92 $= 0.947$, and this was related to higher ratings of painful feelings in others for the genuine pain
93 compared to the pretended pain condition. For ratings of unpleasantness in self (Figure 1C, right),

94 there was a main effect of genuineness: participants showed higher ratings for the genuine vs.
95 pretended conditions, $F_{\text{genuineness}}(1, 42) = 74.989, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.641$. There was also a main effect
96 of pain: participants showed higher ratings for the pain vs. no pain conditions, $F_{\text{pain}}(1, 42) = 254.709,$
97 $p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.858$. The interaction for unpleasantness ratings was significant as well, $F_{\text{interaction}}(1,$
98 $42) = 73.620, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.637$, and this was related to higher ratings of unpleasantness in self
99 for the genuine pain compared to the pretended pain condition. In sum, the behavioral data
100 indicated higher ratings and large effect sizes of painful feelings in others and unpleasantness in self
101 for the genuine compared to the pretended pain condition. Ratings of pain expressions also differed
102 in terms of genuineness, at comparably low effect size, though they were expected to not show a
103 difference by way of our experimental design and the pilot study.

104 We also found a significant correlation between behavioral ratings of painful feelings in others and
105 unpleasantness in self in the genuine pain condition, $r = 0.691, p < 0.001$; while in the pretended
106 pain condition, the correlation was not significant, $r = 0.249, p = 0.107$ (Figure 1D). A bootstrapping
107 comparison showed a significant difference between the two correlation coefficients, $p = 0.002$, 95%
108 Confidence Interval (CI) = [0.230, 1.060].

109 [Insert Figure 1 here]

110 **fMRI results: mass-univariate analyses**

111 Three contrasts were computed: 1) genuine: pain – no pain, 2) pretended: pain – no pain, and 3)
112 genuine (pain – no pain) – pretended (pain – no pain). Across all three contrasts, we found
113 activations as hypothesized in bilateral aIns, aMCC, and rSMG (Figure 2A and Table 1).

114 To identify whether or which brain activity was specifically related to the behavioral ratings
115 described above, we performed a multiple regression analysis where we explored the relationship of
116 activation in the contrast genuine pain – pretended pain with the three behavioral ratings. We found
117 significant clusters in bilateral aIns, visual cortex, and cerebellum (Figure 2B); notably, when
118 statistically accounting for ratings of painful expressions in others and painful feelings in others, all
119 three clusters were exclusively explained by the ratings of self-unpleasantness.

120 [Insert Figure 2 here]

121 [Insert Table 1 here]

122 **DCM results**

123 We performed DCM analysis to specifically examine the modulatory effect of genuineness on the
124 effective connectivity between the right alns and rSMG. More specifically, we sought to assess
125 whether the experimental manipulation of genuine pain vs. pretended pain tuned the bidirectional
126 neural dynamics from alns to rSMG and *vice versa*, in terms of both directionality (sign of the DCM
127 parameter) and intensity (magnitude of the DCM parameter). If the experimental manipulation
128 modulated the effective connectivity, we would observe a strong posterior probability ($p_p > 0.95$) of
129 the modulatory effect. Our original analysis plan was to include aMCC in the DCM analyses, but
130 based on the fact that aMCC did not show as strong evidence (in terms of the multiple regression
131 analysis) as the alns of being involved in our task, we decided to use a more parsimonious DCM
132 model without the aMCC.

133 We found strong evidence of inhibitory effects on the alns to rSMG connection both in the genuine
134 pain condition and in the pretended pain condition (Figure 3A, 3B and 3C). Comparing the strength
135 of these modulatory effects on the alns to rSMG connection revealed a reduced inhibitory effect for
136 genuine pain as opposed to pretended pain, $t_{41} = 2.671$, $p = 0.011$ (Mean_{genuine pain} = -0.821, 95% CI =
137 [-0.878, -0.712]; Mean_{pretended pain} = -0.934, 95% CI = [-1.076, -0.822]; Figure 3C). There was no
138 evidence of a modulatory effect on the rSMG to alns connection.

139 **Individual associations between modulatory effects, behavioral ratings and questionnaires**

140 To examine how the modulatory effects from the DCM were related to the behavioral ratings, we
141 computed two stepwise linear regression models for each condition. The regression model was
142 significant for the genuine pain condition ($F_{\text{model}(1,41)} = 4.639$, $p = 0.037$, $R^2 = 0.104$), when painful
143 feelings in others were added to the model and the other two ratings were excluded ($B = 0.079$, β
144 = 0.322, $p = 0.037$). However, the model was not significant for the pretended pain condition (Figure
145 3D). The variance inflation factors (*VIFs*) for three ratings in both models were calculated to diagnose
146 collinearity, showing no severe collinearity problem (all *VIFs* < 5; the smallest *VIF* = 1.132 and the
147 largest *VIF* = 4.387).

148 In addition, we tested two stepwise linear regression models to investigate whether subscales of all
149 three questionnaires could explain modulatory effects for genuine pain and pretended pain. In the
150 genuine pain condition, we found that the modulatory effect was significantly explained by scores of
151 two subscales, i.e., affective ability and affective reactivity of the ECQ: $F_{\text{model}(1,39)} = 6.829$, $p =$
152 0.003, $R^2 = 0.270$; $B_{\text{affective ability}} = 0.052$, $\beta = 0.497$, $p = 0.002$; $B_{\text{affective reactivity}} = -0.040$, $\beta = -0.421$,
153 $p = 0.008$. No significant predictor was found with the other questionnaires (i.e., IRI and TAS). In the
154 pretended pain condition, none of the three questionnaires significantly predicted variations of the

155 modulatory effect. No severe collinearity problem was detected for either regression model (all *VIFs*
156 < 2 ; the smallest *VIF* = 1.011 and the largest *VIF* = 1.600).

157 [Insert Figure 3 here]

158 **Discussion**

159 In this study, we developed and used a novel experimental paradigm in which participants watched
160 video clips of persons who supposedly either genuinely experienced or merely pretended to be in
161 strong pain. Combining mass-univariate analysis with effective connectivity (DCM) analyses, our
162 study provides evidence on the distinct neural dynamics between regions suggestive of affect
163 processing (i.e., aIns and aMCC) and self-other distinction (i.e., rSMG) for genuinely sharing vs.
164 responding to pretended, non-genuine pain. With this, we aimed to clarify two main questions: First,
165 whether neural responses in areas such as the aIns and aMCC to the pain of others are indeed
166 related to a veridical sharing of affect, as opposed to simply tracking automatic responses to salient
167 affective displays. And second, how processes related to self-other distinction, implemented in the
168 rSMG, enable appropriate empathic responses to genuine vs. merely pretended affective states.

169 The mass-univariate analyses suggest that the increased activity in aIns for genuine pain as opposed
170 to pretended pain properly reflects affect sharing. As aforementioned, the network of affective
171 sharing and certain domain-general processes (e.g., salience detection and automatic emotion
172 processing) overlap in aIns and aMCC (Zaki et al., 2016, for review). This indicates that indeed, part
173 of the activation in these areas could be related to perceptual salience, which is why it has been
174 widely debated as a potential confound of empathy and affect sharing models (Zaki et al., 2016;
175 Lamm et al., 2019, for review). However, when comparing genuine pain versus pretended pain,
176 activity in these areas was not only found to be stronger in response to genuine pain, but the
177 increased activation in aIns was also selectively correlated with ratings of self-oriented
178 unpleasantness (i.e., after statistically accounting for painful expressions and painful feelings in
179 others). That only aIns and not also aMCC shows such correlation may be explained by previous
180 studies, according to which aIns is more specifically associated with affective representations, while
181 the role of aMCC rather seems to evaluate and regulate emotions that arise due to empathy (Fan et
182 al., 2011; Lamm et al., 2011; Jauniaux et al., 2019). Taken together, the activation and brain-behavior
183 findings provide evidence that responses in aIns (and to a lesser extent also the aMCC) are not
184 simply automatic responses triggered by perceptually salient events. Rather, they seem to track the
185 actual affective states of the other person, and thus the shared neural representation of that
186 response (see Zhou et al., 2020, for similar recent conclusions based on multi-voxel pattern
187 analyses). Our findings are also in line with the proposed model of Coll et al. (2017), which suggests

188 that affect sharing is the consequence of emotion identification. More specifically, while part of the
189 activation in the alns and aMCC is indeed related to an (presumably earlier) automatic response, the
190 added engagement of these areas once they have identified the pain as genuine shows that only in
191 this condition, they then also engage in proper affect sharing. Ideally, one should be able to discern
192 these processes in time, but neither the temporal resolution of our fMRI measurements nor the
193 paradigm in which we always announced the conditions beforehand would have been sensitive
194 enough to do so. Thus, future studies including complementary methods such as EEG and MEG, and
195 tailored experimental designs are needed to pinpoint the exact sequence of processes engaged in
196 automatic affective responses vs. proper affect sharing.

197 Beyond higher activation in affective nodes supporting (pain) empathy, increased activation was also
198 found in rSMG. This area was shown to be engaged in action observation and imitating emotions
199 (Bach et al., 2010; Pokorny et al., 2015; Gola et al., 2017; Hawco et al., 2017), and a specific role in
200 affective rather than cognitive self-other distinction has been identified for rSMG (Silani et al., 2013;
201 Steinbeis et al., 2015; Bukowski et al., 2020). Based on such findings, it has been proposed that the
202 rSMG allows for a rapid switching between or the integration of self- and other-related
203 representations, as two processes that may underpin the functional basis of successful self-other
204 distinction (Lamm et al., 2016, for review). Concerning the current findings, we thus propose that
205 the higher rSMG engagement in the genuine pain condition reflects an increasing demand for self-
206 other distinction imposed by the stronger shared negative affect experienced in this condition.
207 Theoretical models of empathy and related socio-affective responses suggest that such regulation is
208 especially important to avoid so-called empathic over-arousal, which would shift the focus away
209 from empathy and the other's needs, towards taking care of one's own personal distress (Batson et
210 al., 1987; Decety & Lamm, 2011, for review).

211 Beyond these differences in the magnitude of rSMG activation, the DCM analysis demonstrated less
212 inhibition on the alns-to-rSMG connection for genuine pain compared to pretended pain. Various
213 theoretical accounts suggest that areas such as the alns and rSMG may play a key role in comparing
214 self-related information with the sensory evidence (Decety & Lamm, 2007; Seth, 2013, for review).
215 According to recent theories on predictive processing (Clark, 2013, for review) and active inference
216 (Friston, 2010, for review), the brain can be regarded as a "prediction machine", in which the top-
217 down signals pass over predictions and the bottom-up signals convey prediction errors across
218 different levels of cortical hierarchies (Chen et al., 2009; Friston, 2010, for review; Bastos et al.,
219 2015). It is suggested that these top-down predictions are mediated by inhibitory neural connections
220 (Zhang et al., 2008; Bastos et al., 2015; Miska et al., 2018). Our findings align with such views, by
221 suggesting that the inhibitory connection from alns to rSMG can be explained as the predictive

222 mismatch between the top-down predictions of self-related information (e.g., personal affect) and
223 sensory inputs (e.g., pain facial expressions). This suppression of neural activity leads to an
224 *explaining away* of incoming bottom-up prediction error. This is reflected by the absence of any
225 condition-dependent modulatory effects on the rSMG to alns connection, suggesting that the
226 influence of the task conditions is sufficiently modeled by the predictions from alns to rSMG.
227 Therefore, the stronger inhibition for pretended pain, compared to genuine pain, could indicate a
228 higher demand to overcome the mismatch between the visual inputs and the agent's prior beliefs
229 and contextual information about the situation (i.e., "this person looks like in pain, but I know
230 he/she does not actually feel it"). The reduced inhibition in the genuine pain condition could
231 moreover be a mechanism that explains the higher rSMG activation in this condition.

232 We also found the strength of the inhibitory effect in the genuine pain condition to correlate with
233 ratings of painful feelings in others, but not with the ratings of pain expression in others or
234 unpleasantness in self. For the pretended pain condition none of the ratings showed a correlation.
235 The latter could in principle be due to a lack of variation in the ratings (which by way of the design
236 were mostly close to zero or one). We deem it more plausible, though, that the correlation findings
237 provide further evidence that the modulation of alns to rSMG is implicated in encoding others'
238 emotional states when participants engaged in genuine affect sharing. It is also interesting to note
239 that the found correlation relates to cognitive evaluations of the other's pain rather than to own
240 affect, as tracked by the unpleasantness in self-ratings. This would to some extent be in line with
241 DCM findings by Kanske et al. (2016). These authors found that the inhibition of the temporoparietal
242 junction (TPJ) by the alns was linked to interactions between Theory of Mind (ToM) and empathic
243 distress, i.e., the interaction of "cognitive" vs. "affective" processes engaged in understanding
244 others' cognitive and affective states. Note that the right TPJ is an overarching area involved in self-
245 other distinction of which rSMG is considered a part or at least closely connected to (Decety &
246 Lamm, 2007, for review).

247 The correlations between the DCM inhibitory effect and empathic traits assessed via questionnaires
248 provide further refinements for the relevance of rSMG in implementing self-other distinction to
249 allow for an appropriate empathic response. When participants shared genuine affect, the inhibitory
250 effect on the alns to rSMG connection was positively correlated with affective ability and negatively
251 correlated with affective reactivity. Affective ability reflects the capacity to subjectively share
252 emotions with others, while affective reactivity plays a role in the susceptibility to vicarious distress
253 and thus to more automatic responses to another's emotion (Batchelder et al., 2017). Again, as for
254 the correlations with the three rating scales, we did not find correlations of empathic traits for the
255 pretended pain condition. Taken together, the DCM results and their qualification by the correlation

256 findings suggest that in the genuine pain condition, which requires an accurate sharing of pain, rSMG
257 interacts with aIns to achieve “affective-to-affective” self-other distinction – i.e., disambiguating
258 affective signals originating in the self from those attributable to the other person. The aIns to rSMG
259 connection in the pretended pain condition may reflect a related, yet slightly distinct mechanism.
260 Here, it seems that “cognitive-to-affective” self-other distinction is at play, which helps resolve
261 conflicting information between the top-down contextual information (i.e., that the demonstrator is
262 not actually in pain) from what seems an unavoidable affective response to the highly salient
263 perceptual cue of the facial expression of pain. Given our behavioral and trait data did not allow us
264 to distinguish more precisely between these different types of self-other distinction, this however
265 remains an interpretation and a hypothesis that will require further investigation.

266 One potential limitation of the study could be the slightly higher ratings of other-oriented pain
267 expressions for genuine pain, which were hypothesized to have no difference, as compared to
268 pretended pain. As we found the enhanced aIns activation in the genuine pain condition mainly
269 tracked personal unpleasantness rather than perceptually domain-general processes, and because
270 the effect size of the pain expression difference was much smaller than for the affect ratings, we
271 consider this difference did not fundamentally influence the interpretation of our findings.

272 In conclusion, the current study advances our understanding of two main aspects of empathy. First,
273 we provide evidence that empathy-related responses in the aIns can indeed be linked to affective
274 sharing, rather than attributing them to responses triggered only by perceptual saliency. Second, we
275 show how aIns and rSMG are orchestrated to track what another person really feels, thus enabling
276 us to appropriately respond to their actual needs. Beyond these basic research insights, our study
277 provides novel avenues for clinical application, and the investigation of contextual and interpersonal
278 factors in the accurate diagnosis of pain and its expression.

279 **Materials and Methods**

280 **Participants**

281 Forty-eight participants took part in the study. Five of them were excluded because of excessive
282 head motion (> 15% scans with the frame-wise displacement over 0.5 mm in one session). Data of
283 the remaining 43 participants (21 females; age: Mean = 26.72 years, S.D. = 4.47) were entered into
284 analyses. Participants were pre-screened by an MRI safety-check questionnaire, assuring normal or
285 corrected to normal vision and no presence or history of neurologic, psychiatric, or major medical
286 disorders. All participants were being right-handed (self-reported) and provided written consent
287 including post-disclosure of any potential deception. The study was approved by the ethics

288 committee of the Medical University of Vienna and was conducted in line with the latest version of
289 the Declaration of Helsinki (2013).

290 **Manipulation of facial expressions**

291 As part of our study we developed a novel experimental design and corresponding stimuli, which
292 consisted of video clips showing different demonstrators ostensibly in four different situations: 1)
293 Genuine pain: the demonstrator's right cheek was penetrated by a hypodermic needle attached to a
294 syringe, and the demonstrator's facial expression changed from neutral to a strongly painful facial
295 expression. 2) Genuine no pain: the demonstrator maintained a neutral facial expression when a Q-
296 tip fixed on the backend of the same syringe touched their right cheek. 3) Pretended pain: the
297 demonstrator's right cheek was approached by the same syringe and the hypodermic needle, with
298 the latter covered by a protective cap; upon touch by the cap, the demonstrator's facial expression
299 changed from neutral to a strongly painful facial expression. 4) Pretended no pain: the demonstrator
300 maintained a neutral facial expression when a Q-tip fixed on the backend of the same syringe
301 touched their right cheek.

302 To create these stimuli, we recruited 20 demonstrators (10 females), with experience in acting, and
303 filmed them in front of a dark blue background. An experimenter who stood on the right side of the
304 demonstrators, but of whom only the right hand holding the syringe could be seen, administered the
305 injections and touches. Unbeknownst to the participants, all painful expressions were acted, as the
306 needle was a telescopic needle (i.e., a needle that seemed to enter the cheek upon contact, but in
307 reality, was invisibly retracting into the syringe). The reason for using a protective cap in the
308 pretended pain condition was to match the perceptual situation that an aversive object was
309 approaching a body part in both pain conditions. In all situations, the demonstrator was instructed
310 to look naturally towards the camera 1.5 m in front of them. As soon as the needle or the cap
311 touched the demonstrator's cheek, the demonstrator made a painful facial expression, as naturally
312 and vividly as possible. In the neutral control conditions, demonstrators maintained a neutral facial
313 expression when a Q-tip fixed at the backend of the syringe touched their cheek. Again, a syringe
314 with a needle attached to the other end was used to perceptually control for the presence of an
315 aversive object in all four conditions. Note that in another set of conditions, demonstrators showed
316 disgusted or neutral expressions. Data from these conditions will be reported elsewhere. All
317 demonstrators signed an agreement that their video clips and static images could be used for
318 scientific purposes.

319 **Stimulus validation and pilot study**

320 To validate the stimuli, we performed an online validation study with N = 110 participants, who were
321 asked to rate a total of 120 video clips of 2 s duration of the two conditions (60 of each condition)
322 showing painful expressions (i.e., the genuine and the pretended pain conditions). The main aim of
323 the validation study was to identify a set of demonstrators that expressed pain with comparable
324 intensity and quality, and whose pain expressions in the genuine and pretended conditions were
325 comparable. After each video clip, participants rated three questions on a visual analog scale with 9
326 tick-marks and the two end-points marked as “almost not at all” to “unbearable”: 1) How much pain
327 did the person *express* on his/her face? 2) How much pain did the person *actually* feel? 3) How
328 *unpleasant* did you feel to watch the person in this situation? The order of these three questions
329 was pseudo-randomized. Moreover, eight catch trials randomly interspersed across the validation
330 study to test whether participants maintained attention to the stimuli. Here, participants were asked
331 to correctly select the demonstrator they had seen in the last video, between two static images of
332 the correct and a distractor demonstrator displayed side by side, both showing neutral facial
333 expressions.

334 The validation study was implemented within the online survey platform SoSci Survey
335 (<https://www.sosicisurvey.de>), with a study participation invite published on Amazon Mechanical
336 Turk (<https://www.mturk.com/>), a globally commercial platform allowing for online testing. Survey
337 data of 62 out of 110 participants (34 females; age: Mean = 28.71 years, S.D. =10.11) were entered
338 into analysis (inclusion criteria: false rate for the test questions < 2/8, survey duration > 20 min and <
339 150 min, and the maximum number of continuous identical ratings < 5). Based on this validation
340 step, we had to exclude videos of 6 demonstrators (3 females) for which participants showed a
341 significant difference in painful expressions in others between the genuine pain and the pretended
342 pain conditions. As a result of this validation, videos of 14 demonstrators (7 females), which showed
343 no difference in the pain *expression* rating between genuine and pretended conditions, and which
344 overall showed comparable mean ratings in all three ratings, were selected for the subsequent pilot
345 study.

346 In the pilot study, 47 participants (24 females; age: Mean = 26.28 years, S.D. = 8.80) were recruited
347 for a behavioral experiment in the behavioral laboratory. The aim was to verify the experimental
348 effects and the feasibility of the experimental procedures that we intended to use in the main fMRI
349 experiment, as well as to identify video stimuli that may not yield the predicted responses. Thus, all
350 four conditions described above were presented to the participants. Participants were explicitly
351 instructed that they would watch other persons’ genuine painful expressions in some blocks, while
352 in other blocks, they would see other persons acting out painful expressions (recall that in reality, all
353 demonstrators had been actors, and the information about this type of necessary deception was

354 conveyed to participants at the debriefing stage). They would see all demonstrators' neutral
355 expressions as well. Participants were instructed to rate the three questions mentioned above. Upon
356 screening for video clips that showed aberrant responses, we excluded videos of two demonstrators
357 (1 female), for whom the pain *expression* rating difference between the pretended vs. genuine
358 expressions was large. 48 videos of 12 demonstrators entered the following analyses. Three separate
359 repeated-measures ANOVAs were respectively performed for the three rating questions. For the
360 main effect of *genuineness* (genuine vs. pretended), it was not significant and low in effect size for
361 painful expressions in others ($F_{\text{genuineness}}(1, 46) = 2.939, p = 0.093, \eta^2 = 0.060$), but was significant
362 with high effect size for the painful feelings in others ($F_{\text{genuineness}}(1, 46) = 280.112, p < 0.001, \eta^2 =$
363 0.859) as well as the unpleasantness in self ($F_{\text{genuineness}}(1, 46) = 43.143, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.484$). The
364 main effects of *pain* (pain vs. no pain) for all three questions were found significant with high effect
365 size (the smallest effect size was for the rating of unpleasantness in self, $F_{\text{pain}}(1, 46) = 82.199, p <$
366 $0.001, \eta^2 = 0.641$). Our pilot study thus a) provided assuring evidence that the novel experimental
367 paradigm worked as expected, and b) made it possible to select video clips that we could match for
368 the two conditions (i.e., genuine pain and pretended pain). More specifically, as expected and
369 required for the main study, participants rated the painfulness of the demonstrators to be
370 substantially higher when it was genuine as compared to those that were pretended, and this also
371 resulted in much higher unpleasantness experienced in the self. It is worth noting that, the two
372 conditions did not differ with respect to the ratings of the painful facial expressions, implying that
373 putative differences in ratings as well as the subsequent brain imaging data could only be attributed
374 to the contextual appraisal of the demonstrators' actual painful states, rather than the differences in
375 facial pain perception. Based on this pilot study, we thus decided on video clips of 12 demonstrators
376 (6 females) in the main fMRI experiment.

377 **Experimental design and procedure of the fMRI study**

378 The experiment was implemented using Cogent 2000 (version 1.33;
379 http://www.vislab.ucl.ac.uk/cogent_2000.php). MRI scanning took place at the University of Vienna
380 MRI Center. Once participants arrived at the scanner site, an experimenter instructed them that they
381 would watch videos from the four conditions outlined above. Participants were explicitly instructed
382 to recreate the feelings of the demonstrators shown in the videos as vividly and intensely as
383 possible. Based on the validation and pilot study, the painful *expressions* for the genuine and
384 pretended conditions were matched. We also counterbalanced the demonstrators appearing in the
385 genuine and pretended conditions across participants, thus controlling for differences in behavioral
386 and brain response that could be explained by differences between the stimulus sets.

387 The participant performed the fMRI experiment in two runs (Figure 1A and 1B). Each run was
388 composed of two blocks showing genuine pain and two blocks showing pretended pain. In each
389 block, the participant watched nine video clips containing both painful and neutral videos. To remind
390 participants' the condition of the upcoming block, a label of 4 s duration appeared at the beginning
391 of each block, showing either "genuine" or "pretended" (in German). Each trial started with a
392 fixation cross (+) presented for 4 – 7 s (in steps of 1.5 s, Mean = 5.5 s). After that, the video (duration
393 = 2 s) was played. A short jitter was inserted after the video for 0.5 – 1.0 s (in steps of 0.05 s, Mean =
394 0.75 s). After the jitter, the following three questions were displayed (in German) one after the other
395 in a pseudo-randomized order: 1) How much pain did the person *express* on his/her face? 2) How
396 much pain did the person *actually feel*? 3) How *unpleasant did you feel* to watch the person in this
397 situation? Beneath each question, a visual analog scale ranging from 0 (not at all) to 8 (unbearable)
398 with 9 tick-marks was positioned. The participant moved the marker along the scale by pressing the
399 left or right keys on the button box, and they pressed the middle key to confirm their answer. The
400 marker initially was always located at the midpoint ("4") of the scale. When the confirmed key was
401 pressed, the marker turned from black to red. All ratings lasted for 4 s even when the participant
402 pressed the confirmed key before the end of this period. Between the two runs, the participant had
403 a short break (1-2 min).

404 Before entering the scanner, participants conducted practice trials on the computer to get
405 familiarized with the button box and the experimental interface. After that, participants were moved
406 into the scanner and performed the task. Following the functional imaging runs, a 6.5 min structural
407 scanning was employed. When participants finished the scanning session, they were scheduled for a
408 date to complete three questionnaires in the lab: the Empathy Components Questionnaire (ECQ)
409 (Batchelder, 2015; Batchelder et al., 2017), the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI) (Davis, 1980), and
410 the Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS) (Bagby et al., 1994). For the ECQ, there are 27 items in total to
411 be categorized into five subscales: cognitive ability, cognitive drive, affective ability, affective drive,
412 and affective reactivity, using a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 4
413 ("strongly agree") (Batchelder, 2015; Batchelder et al., 2017). For the IRI, there are 28 items divided
414 into four subscales: perspective taking, fantasy, empathic concern, and personal distress, using a 5-
415 point Likert scale ranging from 0 ("does not describe me well") to 4 ("describes me very well")
416 (Davis, 1980). For the TAS, there are 20 items and three subscales - difficulty describing feelings,
417 difficulty identifying feelings, and externally oriented thinking, using a 5-point Likert scale ranging
418 from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree") (Bagby et al., 1994). The average interval
419 between the scanning session and the lab survey was one week. The participant was debriefed after
420 completing the whole study.

421 **Behavioral data analysis**

422 We applied repeated-measures ANOVAs to investigate the main effects and the interaction of the
423 two factors genuine vs. pretended and pain vs. no pain, using SPSS (version 26.0; IBM). Furthermore,
424 we conducted Pearson correlations to examine whether ratings of painful feelings in others were
425 correlated with unpleasantness in self for the genuine pain and the pretended pain. The correlation
426 coefficients were further compared using a bootstrap approach with the R package bootcorci
427 (<https://github.com/GRousselet/bootcorci>).

428 **fMRI data acquisition**

429 fMRI data were collected using a Siemens Magnetom Skyra MRI scanner (Siemens, Erlangen,
430 Germany) with a 32-channel head coil. Functional whole-brain scans were collected using a
431 multiband-accelerated T2*-weighted echoplanar imaging (EPI) sequence (multiband acceleration
432 factor = 4, interleaved ascending acquisition in multi-slice mode, 52 slices co-planar to the
433 connecting line between anterior and posterior commissure, TR = 1200 ms, TE = 34 ms, acquisition
434 matrix = 96×96 voxels, FOV = 210×210 mm², flip angle = 66°, inter-slice gap = 0.4 mm, voxel size =
435 $2.2 \times 2.2 \times 2$ mm³). Two functional imaging runs, each lasting around 16 min (~800 images per run),
436 were performed. Structural images were acquired with a magnetization-prepared rapid gradient-
437 echo (MPRAGE) sequence (TE/TR = 2.43/2300 ms, flip angle = 8°, ascending acquisition, single-shot
438 multi-slice mode, FOV = 240×240 mm², voxel size = $0.8 \times 0.8 \times 0.8$ mm³, 208 sagittal slices, slice
439 thickness = 0.8 mm).

440 **fMRI data processing and mass-univariate functional segregation analyses**

441 Imaging data were preprocessed with a combination of Nipype (Gorgolewski et al., 2011) and
442 MATLAB (version R2018b 9.5.0; MathWorks) with Statistical Parametric Mapping (SPM12;
443 <https://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm/software/spm12/>). Raw data were imported into BIDS format
444 (<http://bids.neuroimaging.io/>). Functional data were subsequently preprocessed using slice timing
445 correction to the middle slice (Sladky et al., 2011), realignment to the first image of each session, co-
446 registration to the T1 image, segmentation between grey matter, white matter and cerebrospinal
447 fluid (CSF), normalization to MNI template space using Diffeomorphic Anatomical Registration
448 Through Exponentiated Lie Algebra (DARTEL) toolbox (Ashburner, 2007), and smoothing with a 6
449 mm full width at half-maximum (FWHM) three-dimensional Gaussian kernel.

450 To improve data quality, we performed data scrubbing of the functional scans for those whose
451 frame-wise displacements (FD) were over 0.5 mm (Power et al., 2012; Power et al., 2014). In other

452 words, we identified individual outlier scans and flagged the volume indices as nuisance regressors
453 in the general linear model (GLM) for the first-level analysis.

454 In order to perform mass-univariate functional segregation analyses, a first-level GLM design matrix
455 was created and composed of two identically modeled runs for each participant. Seven regressors of
456 interest were entered in each model: stimulation phase of the four conditions (i.e., genuine pain,
457 genuine no pain, pretended pain, pretended no pain; 2000 ms), rating phase of the three questions
458 (i.e., painful expressions in others, painful feelings in others, and unpleasantness in self; 12000 ms).
459 Six head motion parameters and the scrubbing regressors (FD > 0.5 mm; if applicable) were
460 additionally entered as nuisance regressors. Individual contrasts of the four conditions and the three
461 ratings (all across the two runs) against implicit baseline were respectively created.

462 On the second level, a flexible factorial design was employed to perform the group-level analysis.
463 The design included three factors: a between-subject factor (i.e., subject) that was specified
464 independent and with equal variance, a within-subject factor (i.e., genuine or pretended) that was
465 specified dependent and with equal variance, and a second within-subject factor (i.e., pain or no
466 pain) that was specified dependent and with equal variance (Gläscher & Gitelman, 2008). Three
467 contrasts were computed: (1) main effect of genuine: pain – no pain, (2) main effect of pretended:
468 pain – no pain, and (3) interaction: genuine (pain – no pain) – pretended (pain – no pain). We
469 applied an initial threshold of $p < 0.001$ (uncorrected) at the voxel level and a family-wise error
470 (FWE) correction ($p < 0.05$) at the cluster level. The cluster extent threshold was determined by the
471 SPM extension “cp_cluster_Pthresh.m” (<https://goo.gl/kjVydZ>).

472 **Brain-behavior relationships**

473 A multiple regression model was built on the group level to investigate the relationship between
474 specific brain activations and behavioral ratings. In this model, the contrast genuine pain –
475 pretended pain was set as the dependent variable, and three behavioral ratings were specified as
476 independent variables. All covariates were mean-centered. The model aimed to test which brain
477 activations of the contrast could be explained by an independent variable after accounting for the
478 other two. Note that, we performed the regression model with the contrast genuine pain –
479 pretended pain instead of the more exhaustive contrast genuine (pain - no pain) - pretended (pain –
480 no pain), and this was because the genuine and the pretended pain conditions were the main focus
481 of our work. Moreover, the pain contrast showed more robust (in terms of statistical effect size) and
482 widespread activations across the brain, making it more likely to pick up possible brain-behavior
483 relationships. The same threshold as above was applied in this analysis.

484 We aimed to assess these brain-behavior relationships for the following regions of interest (ROI): 1)
485 alns and aMCC, i.e., two regions associated with affective processes and specifically with empathy
486 for pain, 2) rSMG, an area implicated in affective self-other distinction. The ROI masks were defined
487 as the conjunction of the averaging contrast between genuine and pretended: pain – no pain
488 (threshold: voxel-wise FWE correction, $p < 0.05$) and the anatomical masks created by the Wake
489 Forest University (WFU) Pick Atlas SPM toolbox (<http://fmri.wfubmc.edu>) with the automated
490 anatomical atlas (AAL). The ROI masks were created with Marsbar ROI Toolbox implemented in
491 SPM12 (Brett et al., 2002). Note that we specifically selected the ROIs this way, such that they were
492 orthogonal (i.e., independent) to the subsequent analyses of interest. As exploratory analyses found
493 significant correlations mainly in alns, rather than in aMCC, we will focus in the results section on
494 two ROIs: the right alns and the rSMG. Focusing on the right alns instead of the left one was because
495 the right alns is on the ipsilateral hemisphere as rSMG.

496 **Analyses using dynamic causal modeling (DCM)**

497 To investigate the functional network involved in affective processes and self-other distinction and
498 how it was modulated by our experimental manipulations (i.e., genuine pain and pretended pain),
499 we used DCM to estimate the effective connectivity between the ROIs based on the tasked-related
500 brain responses (Stephan & Friston, 2010, for review). The DCM analyses were conducted with
501 DCM12.5 implemented in SPM12 (v. 7771). Firstly, we extracted individual time series separately for
502 each ROI. To ensure the selected voxels engaged in a task-relevant activity but not random signal
503 fluctuations, we determined the voxels both on a group-level threshold and an individual-level
504 threshold (Holmes et al., 2020). An initial threshold was set as $p < 0.05$, uncorrected. The significant
505 voxels in the main effect of genuine pain and pretended pain were further selected by an individual
506 threshold. For each participant, an individual peak coordinate within the ROI mask was searched and
507 an individual mask was consequently defined using a sphere of the 6 mm radius around the peak. As
508 a result, the individual time series for each ROI was extracted from the significant voxels of the
509 individual mask and summarized by the first eigenvariate. One participant was excluded as no voxels
510 survived significance testing. Secondly, we specified three regressors of interest: genuine pain,
511 pretended pain, and the video input condition (the combination of genuine pain and pretended
512 pain). That we did not specify no-pain conditions was because 1) the pain conditions were our main
513 focus, and 2) adding no-interest conditions would inevitably increase the model complexity. Then, a
514 fully connected DCM model for each participant was created. Three parameters were specified: 1)
515 bidirectional connections between regions and self-connections (matrix A), 2) modulatory effects
516 (i.e., genuine pain and pretended pain) on the between-region connections (matrix B), and 3) driving
517 inputs (i.e., the video input condition) into the model on both regions (matrix C) (Zeidman et al.,

518 2019a). To remain parsimonious, we did not set modulatory effects on the self-connections in Matrix
519 A. Then the full DCM model was individually estimated. Finally, group-level DCM inference was
520 performed using parametric empirical Bayes (Zeidman et al., 2019b). We conducted an automatic
521 search over the entire model space (max. $n = 256$) using Bayesian model reduction (BMR) and
522 random-effects Bayesian model averaging (BMA), resulting in a final group model that takes
523 accuracy, complexity, and uncertainty into account (Zeidman et al., 2019b). The threshold of the
524 Bayesian posterior probability was set to $p_p > 0.95$ (i.e., *strong evidence*) but we reported all
525 parameters above $p_p > 0.75$ (i.e., *positive evidence*) for full transparency of the DCM results. Finally, a
526 paired sample *t*-test was performed to compare modulatory effects between the genuine pain and
527 the pretended pain conditions.

528 To probe whether task-related modulatory effects were associated with behavioral measurements,
529 we performed stepwise linear regression analyses of modulatory parameters with, 1) the three
530 behavioral ratings, and 2) the empathy-related questionnaires (i.e., IRI, ECQ, and TAS). We set up
531 two regression models for the genuine pain condition and the pretended pain condition,
532 respectively, in which the DCM parameters of modulatory effects were determined as dependent
533 variables and the ratings of painful expressions in others, painful feelings in others, and
534 unpleasantness in self as independent variables. Accordingly, we performed additional two
535 regression models for both conditions in which DCM modulatory effects were set as dependent
536 variables and scores of each subscale of all questionnaires were set as independent variables,
537 respectively. As two participants did not complete all three questionnaires, we excluded their data
538 from the regression analyses. The statistical significance of the regression analysis was set to $p <$
539 0.05 . The multicollinearity for independent variables was diagnosed using the variance inflation
540 factor (VIF) that measures the correlation among independent variables, in the R package *car*
541 (<https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/car/index.html>). Here we used a rather conservative
542 threshold of $VIF < 5$ as a sign of no severe multicollinearity (Menard, 2002; James et al., 2013).

543 **Data availability**

544 The manuscript includes all datasets generated or analyzed during this study. Data and analysis
545 scripts are available upon request.

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553 **Conflicts of interest**

554 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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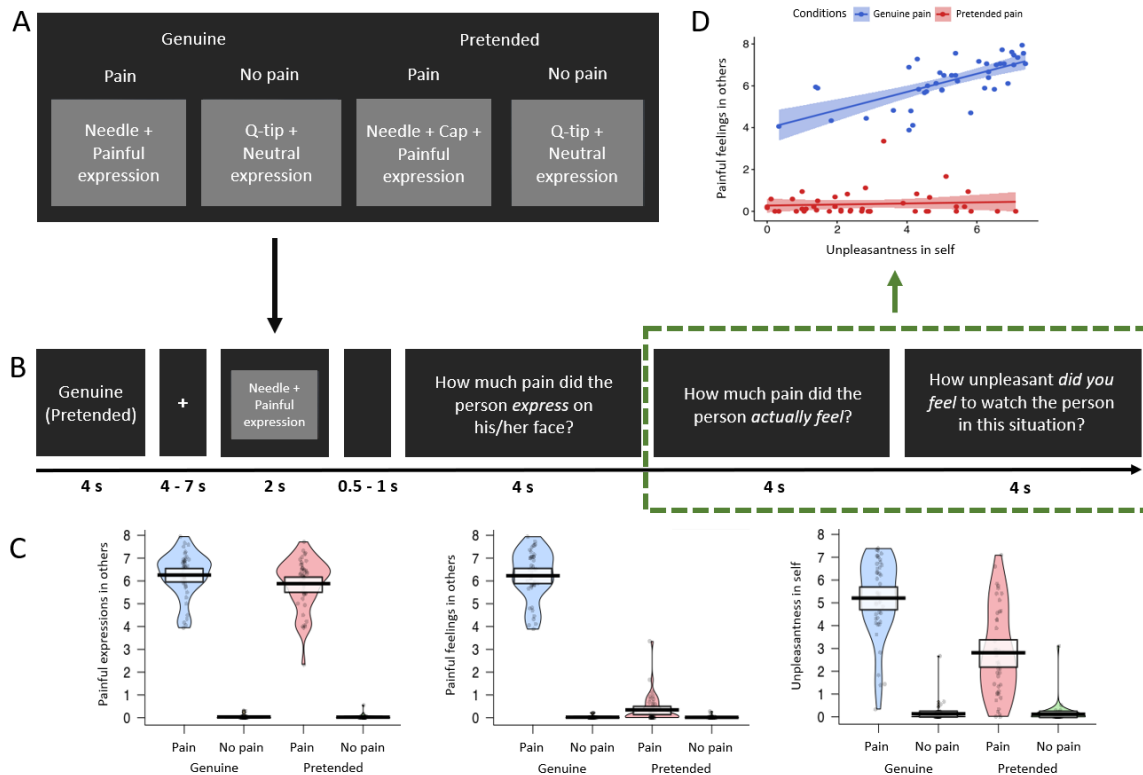
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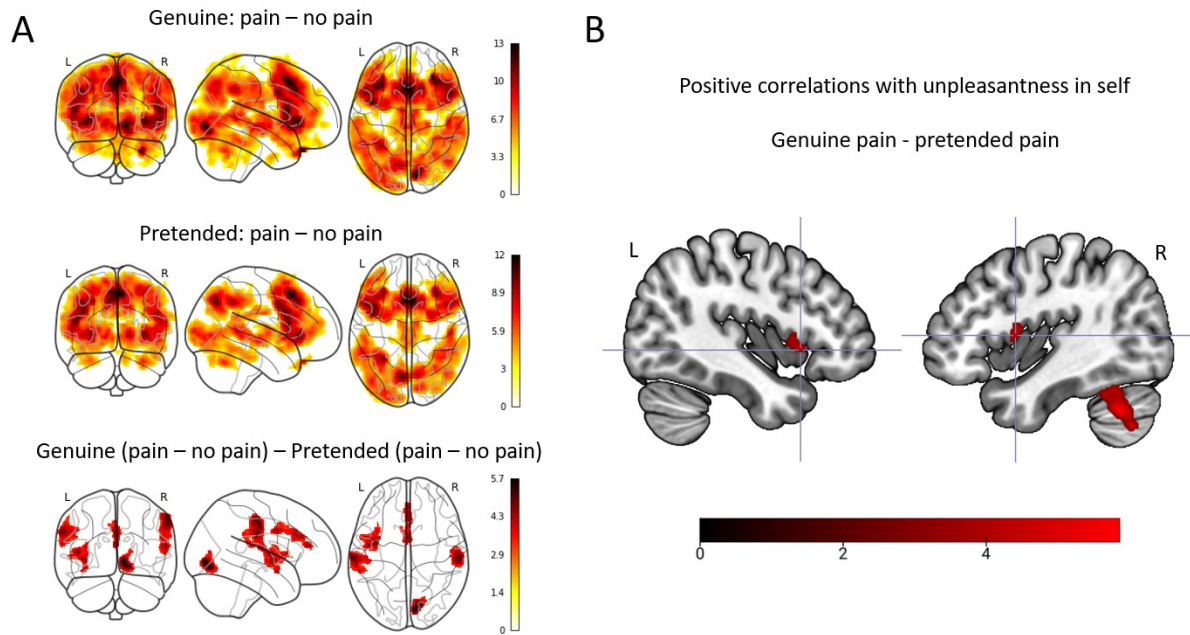
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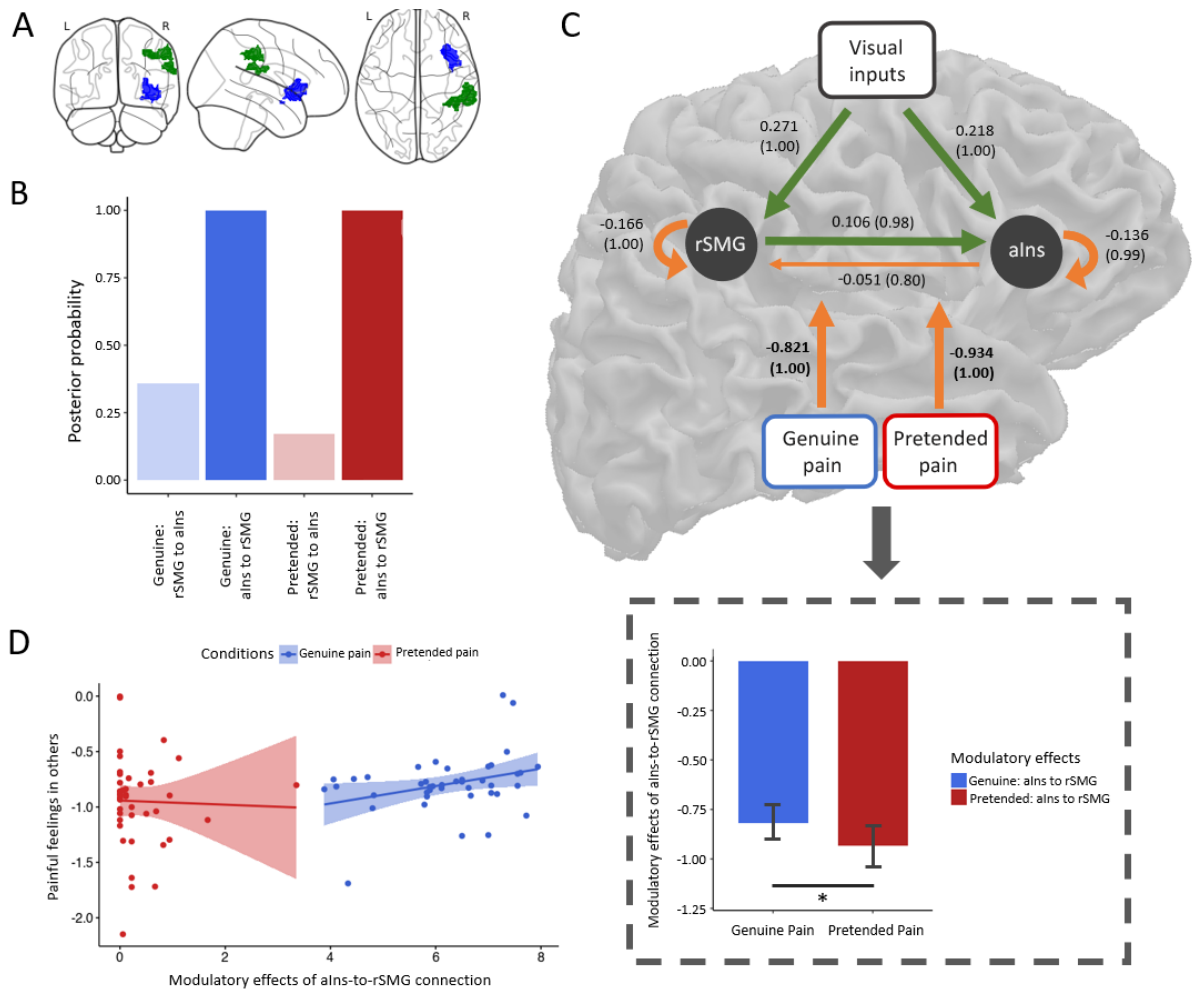
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722 **Figure 1. fMRI experimental design and behavioral results.** (A) Overview of the experimental design
 723 with the four conditions genuine vs. pretended, pain vs. no pain. (B) Overview of experimental
 724 timeline. At the outset of each block, a reminder of “genuine” or “pretended” was shown (both
 725 terms are shown here for illustrative purposes, in the experiment either genuine or pretended was
 726 displayed). After a fixation cross, a video in the corresponding condition appeared on the screen.
 727 Followed by a short jitter, three questions about the video were separately presented and had to be
 728 rated on a visual analogue scale. These would then be followed by the next video clip and questions
 729 (not shown). (C) Violin plots of the three types of ratings for all conditions. Participants generally
 730 demonstrated higher ratings for painful expressions in others, painful feelings in others, and
 731 unpleasantness in self in the genuine pain condition than in the pretended pain condition. Ratings of
 732 all three questions were higher in the painful situation than in the neutral situation, regardless of
 733 whether in the genuine or pretended condition. The thick black lines illustrate mean values, and the
 734 white boxes indicate a 95% CI. The dots are individual data, and the “violin” outlines illustrate their
 735 estimated density at different points of the scale. (D) Correlations of painful feelings in others and
 736 unpleasantness in self for the genuine pain and the pretended pain (the relevant questions were
 737 highlighted with a green rectangular). Results revealed a significant Pearson correlation between the
 738 two questions in the genuine pain condition, but no correlation in the pretended pain condition. The
 739 lines represent the fitted regression lines, bands indicate a 95% CI.



740 **Figure 2. Neuroimaging results: Mass-univariate analyses.** (A) Activation maps of genuine: pain – no
741 pain (top), pretended: pain - no pain (middle), and genuine (pain – no pain) – pretended (pain – no
742 pain) (bottom). As expected, we found brain activations in the bilateral alns, aMCC, and rSMG in all
743 three contrasts (except for the bottom contrast, where the right alns is only close to the significance
744 threshold). (B) The multiple regression analysis demonstrated significant clusters in the left (peak: [-
745 42, 15, -2]) and right anterior insular cortex (peak: [45, 5, 8]) for the ratings of unpleasantness in self.
746 All activations are thresholded with cluster-level FWE correction, $p < 0.05$ ($p < 0.001$ uncorrected
747 initial selection threshold).



748 **Figure 3. DCM results and brain-behavior analyses.** (A) ROIs included in the DCM: aIns (blue; peak:
 749 [33, 29, 2]) and rSMG (green; peak: [41, -39, 42]). (B) Posterior probability of modulatory effects for
 750 the genuine pain and the pretended pain. (C) The group-average DCM model. Green arrows indicate
 751 neural excitation, and orange arrows indicate neural inhibition. Importantly, we found strong
 752 evidence of inhibitory effects on the connection of aIns to rSMG for both the genuine pain condition
 753 and the pretended pain condition. Values without the bracket quantify the strength of connections
 754 and values in the bracket indicate the posterior probability of connections. All DCM parameters of
 755 the optimal model showed greater than a 95% posterior probability (i.e., strong evidence) except for
 756 the intrinsic connection of aIns to rSMG ($p_p = 0.80$). Paired sample t-test showed less inhibitory
 757 effects of the aIns-to-rSMG connection for the genuine pain than the pretended pain. This result is
 758 highlighted with a grey rectangular. Data are mean \pm 95% CI. (D) The stepwise linear regression
 759 model revealed a positive correlation between the inhibitory effect and painful feelings in others
 760 (after accounting for the other two ratings) for genuine pain but no correlation for pretended pain.

761 **Table 1.** Results of mass-univariate functional segregation analyses in the MNI space. Region names
 762 were labeled with the AAL atlas, threshold $p < 0.05$ cluster-wise FWE correction (initial selection
 763 threshold $p < 0.001$, uncorrected). BA = Brodmann area, L = left hemisphere, R = right hemisphere.
 764

Region label	BA	Cluster size	x	y	z	t-value
Genuine: pain - no pain						
Lingual_R	18	183732	11	-84	-3	13.38
Temporal_Pole_Sup_R	38		30	33	-33	13.31
Supp_Motor_Area_R	8		5	15	51	12.96
Supp_Motor_Area_R	8		3	17	50	12.92
Supp_Motor_Area_L	8		-5	17	48	12.56
Insula_L	45		-32	26	6	12.32
Insula_R	45		33	29	3	12.09
Frontal_Inf_Oper_R	44		51	14	15	12.01
Frontal_Inf_Oper_R	44		50	12	18	11.79
Precentral_L	6		-42	3	39	11.72
Fusiform_R	20	463	36	-5	-41	5.58
Pretended: pain - no pain						
Supp_Motor_Area_R	8	59665	5	20	48	11.80
Supp_Motor_Area_L	8		-6	18	50	11.14
Frontal_Inf_Oper_L	44		-50	15	15	10.39
Insula_R	45		33	29	0	9.81
Insula_L	45		-29	30	0	9.60
Frontal_Inf_Tri_R	44		47	15	26	9.21
Precuneus_L	7	35136	-9	-71	41	10.27
Parietal_Inf_L	39		-32	-51	41	9.39
Precuneus_R	7		9	-69	38	8.44
Temporal_Mid_L	21		-53	-47	5	7.67
Occipital_Mid_L	19		-44	-78	2	7.47
Parietal_Inf_R	39		39	-50	41	7.25
Temporal_Mid_R	22	12970	51	-20	-6	7.70
Lingual_R	17		12	-86	-2	7.40
Fusiform_R	37		47	-33	-27	5.32
Occipital_Mid_R	18		33	-86	3	5.23
Cingulum_Mid_R	23	1666	-3	-14	27	6.35
Cingulum_Mid_L	23		-3	-24	32	5.57
Temporal_Pole_Sup_R	47	589	32	35	-33	7.18

Frontal_Sup_Orb_R	11		17	41	-24	3.36
Genuine (pain – no pain) – pretended (pain – no pain)	19	18	24	-81	39	5.27
SupraMarginal_L	40	1877	-66	-21	32	4.94
Postcentral_L	1		-50	-21	26	3.75
SupraMarginal_R	40	1833	63	-20	42	5.09
Rolandic_Oper_R	40		59	-15	14	4.47
Insula_L	13	1299	-38	-3	-2	5.01
Rolandic_Oper_L	4		-45	-6	8	4.8
Cingulum_Ant_L	32	1138	0	41	17	4.54
Cingulum_Mid_R	32		2	24	32	4.45
Cingulum_Mid_L	24		0	2	35	4.43
Cingulum_Ant_R	8		2	32	27	4.42
Lingual_R	18	1003	9	-84	-3	5.72
Calcarine_R	17		18	-78	8	3.61
Insula_R	13	225	39	8	-3	3.91
Rolandic_Oper_R	13		41	0	11	3.77

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